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ABSTRACT

The basic theory that the teacher style required for effective learning in the classroom is contingent on the favorableness of the group situation was tested in a controlled experiment. Eight groups of eighth-grade boys were assigned to two teachers, four groups for each. Two hypotheses were under examination: (1) A task-oriented teacher will be more effective in terms of student learning in a situation that is unfavorable rather than favorable for being a teacher; (2) A person-oriented teacher will be more effective in a situation that is favorable rather than unfavorable for being a teacher. The test studied the interrelationship between teacher style and situational factors with student performance. The subject was word imagery. The task-oriented teacher gave directions one step at a time, criticized and praised individuals, remained aloof from the group, and determined how the session should be conducted. The person-oriented teacher explained the subject, criticized and praised the group as a whole, and conducted the session democratically as a member of the group. While statistically accurate measurement of pupil achievement under the different teaching styles and situations were not obtainable, a general conclusion was reached. The implication was that teacher education students should be taught to vary their teaching style according to the favorableness of the teaching situation. Appendixes include the test given to the students after the teaching session; instructions to the two teachers; and a form for the students to use in evaluating the experience. (JD)

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TEST OF A CONTINGENCY MODEL OF TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

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The Problem

In the introduction to his book Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, Fiedler notes that while a great deal of material on leadership effectiveness exists, no one has yet succeeded in developing a valid theory of leadership effectiveness (Fiedler, 1967). Two major theories of leadership effectiveness may be discerned. One approach, based on Taylor's book, Scientific Management, calls upon leaders to direct and control the group and to assign and specify exactly what the subordinate is to do (Thompson, 1914). A second approach stems from work on human relations training. The leader's role is to promote interest and activity by the group's members, involving them in the decision-making process and motivating them by developing positive interpersonal relationships (Mayo, 1945; McGregor, 1967; Likert, 1967; Argyris, 1964).

According to Fiedler's criteria the validity of a theory depends on its accuracy in predicting events and in clarifying conflicting results. Taylor's as well as the human relations approaches have not been able to predict whether a particular leader would be successful in a given leadership role. Some leaders function better in one leadership situation; some in another (Knoell and Forgays, 1952; Cleven and Fiedler, 1955; Fiedler, 1966).

The effort to develop a satisfactory theory of teacher effectiveness has suffered from similar difficulties. There are, generally speaking, two major theories about the characteristics of an effective teacher, represented by the "task-oriented" and the human relations (or humanistic) approaches. The task-oriented

approach states that the effective teacher specifies carefully the expected learning outcomes and then structures his teaching to lead to these outcomes (Popham, 1970; Skinner, 1968). By contrast, the humanistic approach states that motivating the students, including generating their participation and interest in classroom activities, are key factors in effective teaching. The effective teacher involves students in the formation of goals as well as in the planning and evaluation of class activities (Combs, 1965; Flanders and Simon, 1969; Hamachek, 1969).

Research on these theories has produced mixed results. The humanists support the proposition that the teacher should incorporate the students' ideas in the classroom. However, research on the effect on learning of utilizing students' ideas has been equivocal (Soar, 1966; Perkins, 1965; Fortune, 1967; Morrison, 1966; Flanders (2nd grade), 1970; Flanders (8th grade), 1970; Wright and Nuthall, 1970).

The use of teacher praise of students is associated with advocates of the human relations approach. However, research in student achievement based on this variable has been inconclusive (Anthony, 1967, Flanders (6th grade), 1970; Waller (1st grade), 1966; Waller and Wodtke, 1963; Allen, 1969; Flanders (2nd grade), 1970; Flanders (7th grade), 1970; Harris and Serwer, 1966; and Hunter, 1968).

The impact of teacher warmth, associated with the humanists, is a teacher characteristic which has been investigated. The effectiveness of this characteristic in terms of student achievement is unclear. Research by Christensen (1960), Fortune (1967), Kleinman (1964), Torrance and Parent (1966) found a significant

relationship between teacher warmth and student achievement; whereas other studies have not found a signficant relationship (Beiderman, 1964; Chall and Feldman, 1966; Fortune, et al., 1966; Solomon, et al., 1963; Torrance and Parent (1st study), 1966).

Several studies have found that a task-oriented teacher (e.g., having a teacher act aloof and structure the group's workload) can have positive effects on student performance (Chall and Feldman, 1966; Fortune, 1967; Kleinman, 1964; Torrance and Parent (2nd study), 1966; and Waller, 1966).

Fiedler notes that it is difficult to develop a valid theory of leadership effectiveness because leadership is a highly complex social process involving such factors as morale, confidence in the leader and liking of the leader by members (Fiedler, 1967). A similar observation applies to the difficulty in predicting the effectiveness of a teacher (Gage, 1972).

As an alternative to traditional theories of leadership effectiveness, Fiedler suggests the following approach. His theory emphasizes two basic leadership styles: task-oriented and person-oriented. He theorizes that the task-oriented leader is more effective in highly favorable and highly unfavorable situations whereas the person-oriented leader is more effective in situations which are intermediate in favorableness. He defines favorableness of the situation as the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over the group (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler has identified three components that are significant in measuring favorableness: position power (amount of formal power delegated to the leader--ability to hire or fire, raise salary, etc.), task

structure (the degree to which the task is structured--decision verifiability, goal clarity, goal path multiplicity, and solution specificity), and the personal relationships between the leader and the members. Using these measures he has been able to predict successful (that is to say, the group accomplishes the task) and unsuccessful leadership encounters (Hunt, 1967; Hill, 1969; Fiedler, et al., 1969; O'Brien, 1969; Shima, 1969; Mitchell, 1969; Fiedler, 1971; Skrzypek, 1969).

Table 1 illustrates the Fiedler hypothesis and his predictions. Each of the categories is referred to as an octant. As an example, octant I is highly favorable for the leader--his leader-member relations are good, the task is structured and his position power is strong. The prediction is that in octant I the group under the task-oriented leader would achieve better results.

Fiedler's work has been largely confined to studying leadership in interacting groups; that is, groups in which what one member does affects the task performance of the others. Members of a basketball team or workers on an assembly line are good examples of interacting groups. Few studies have been made of leadership in coacting groups; that is, groups in which one's task performance depends on the individual's own ability, skill, and motivation. It is this latter group that more closely fits the teaching situation. Fiedler has done some work in this area, but his studies have been correlational studies, not carefully controlled studies in which one variable is systematically manipulated.

Research attempting to apply the Fiedler model to the actual classroom situation has been limited. Fahy (1972) conducted a

Table 1

Predictions of Successful Leadership Style Based on Favorableness of the Leadership Situation in Fiedler's Contingency Theory

	Octant	Leader-member relations	Task Structure	Leader Position Power	Effective Leadership Style
Favorable for the teacher	I	Good	Structured	Strong	Task
	II	Good	Structured	Weak	Task
	III	Good	Unstructured	Strong	Task
	IV	Good	Unstructured	Weak	Person
	V	Moderately poor	Structured	Strong	Person
	VI	Moderately poor	Structured	Weak	Person
	VII	Moderately poor	Unstructured	Strong	Person
Unfavorable for the teacher	VIII	Moderately poor	Unstructured	Weak	Task

study involving ninety student teachers. Their leadership style was assessed by the same test used by Fiedler (Least-Preferred Co-worker Scale). However, the study is marred in several respects: (1) the basis for determining the effectiveness of the student teacher is not task accomplishment (i.e., how much his pupils learned) but ratings by the college supervisors; and (2) the favorableness of the student teaching situation was judged on the basis of agreement and compatibility between the student teacher and the cooperating teacher, not on position power, task structure, and leader-member relations as in Fiedler. In short, the model was not given a full testing in this field study of student teachers.

Hardy (1969) tested the contingency model on eight groups, each consisting of three members and a leader, in a college psychology class. This was a well-designed study and follows well the thesis of the contingency model: task accomplishment was the criteria of the successful leader, group perception of position power was verified by the Position Power Scale, and group-leader relations were verified by the Group Evaluation Scale.

Hardy tested the first four quadrants and found support for predictions about octants I, III, and IV; only octant II failed to show the effects. However, the groups were quite small and at the college level; therefore, support for the contingency model in classroom size groups in the public schools remains open.

The present study tested hypotheses derived from Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness in a classroom situation. Two major experimental hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 1. A task-oriented teacher will be more effective

(in terms of student learning and satisfaction) in a situation which is unfavorable rather than intermediately favorable for being a teacher.

Hypothesis 2. A person-oriented (humanistic) teacher will be more effective in a situation which is intermediately favorable than unfavorable for being a teacher.

These hypotheses are based on the assumption that teacher style interacts with the favorableness of the teaching situation in determining who is the most effective teacher. Thus a statistical interaction of teacher style by favorableness of the teaching situation is expected.

It should be noted that this experimental study is the first of its kind to examine the interrelationship between teacher style and situational factors with public school student performance.

Method

Subjects

One hundred eighty-four male eighth grade pupils participated in the study. All male eighth grade pupils in the target school participated in the study. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of eight treatment conditions. There were eight groups, consisting of twenty-three subjects each, which were run in the separate conditions.

Procedure

Students were run by one of two female teachers in a situation which was either in octant IV or octant VIII. The teacher taught the lesson under either a task-set or a person-set style of teaching.

The design of the study was a 2 x 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance with teacher (A and B), classroom atmosphere (octant IV or VIII) and teacher style (task- and person-set) as the independent variables. Cronbach's post-test only design was followed (Cronbach and Furby, 1970).

Style of Teaching Manipulation

One of the teachers and twenty-three subjects reported to a vacant classroom at a scheduled time during the regular school day. The lesson lasted approximately 30 minutes. The teacher said she was conducting an investigation on the effectiveness of new educational packages which were being developed by the School of Education at Old Dominion University. Each teacher was trained in the styles used by Lewin and Lippitt (1938) in their studies on leadership.

In teaching the lesson on verbal learning, the task-oriented teacher: (a) went only one step at a time when giving directions so that the group was uncertain as to what to do next; (b) criticized and praised individual members of the group; (c) remained aloof from the group, and (d) determined how the session had to be conducted in order to learn the lesson. The person-oriented teacher: (a) explained and provided perspective on work procedures; (b) criticized and praised the group as a whole; (c) became a group member in spirit; and (d) had the group determine how the session was to be conducted in order to learn the lesson.

Preliminary research was conducted to establish the effectiveness of the teaching style manipulation. Pilot groups successfully rated examples of the teaching styles according to the degree that the performance embodied the desired effects.

Classroom Atmosphere

The basic hypothesis of the contingency model which we have adopted from Fiedler states that the teacher style required for effective learning in the classroom is contingent on the favorableness of the group situation. According to Fiedler (1967), ease of exercizing leadership in a situation, and, in our own case, teaching, determines what kind of leadership style is most effective. For instance, situations in which the exercise of leadership is most difficult or easiest warrant task-oriented leadership styles. Situations where the exercise of leadership is moderately difficult warrant person-oriented leadership styles. For instance, when the leader is not liked or accepted by the group, the possibility always exists that the group will simply fall apart. The leader must move decisively and in a task-oriented manner if the group will continue on the task and survive at all. In the relatively unfavorable situation, a democratic leader would tend to ask too many questions about what the group ought to do or how he ought to progress. The democratically inclined, person-oriented leader is likely to have a group breakdown where poor leader-member relations exist. This prediction is unobvious since most research on teaching implies that a person-oriented teacher will generally be most effective (Cogan, 1958; Combs, 1965; Reed, 1960; Witty, 1947).

Fiedler states that in an unfavorable situation for the leader, the leader-member relations are moderately poor, the task is unstructured, and the leader's position power is weak (octant VIII). To create moderately poor teacher-pupil relations, the teacher told the pupils at the beginning of the lesson that there would be

a homework assignment as part of the experiment. The teacher continued to emphasize the difficulty of the homework and the necessity for completing it until the pupils visibly showed their agitation. Pilot work conducted earlier verified that this manipulation was effective. The lesson itself was on word imagery, a vague topic (unstructured task - Smith, 1956). The position power of the teachers was weak since they had no authority to assign grades to the pupils or to punish them.

According to Fiedler, a leadership situation of intermediate favorableness exists when the leader-member relations are good, the task is unstructured, and the teacher's position power is weak. In order to create a favorable situation, the teacher praised the students at the beginning of the lesson for being subjects in the study and presented them with a certificate of appreciation from the School of Education and the Department of Psychology, signed by the chief investigators. This device was intended to promote good teacher-pupil relations. The task structure and position power remained the same as in the unfavorable condition.

Dependent Measures

One area that has concerned researchers in the field of teacher effectiveness has been the criterion of effectiveness--by what standard will the teacher be judged effective? Researchers have used, among others, ratings by superintendent, principal, supervisors, teacher educators, subject-matter department personnel, self-rating, peers, pupils, pupil-gain scores, composites of tests thought to measure teaching effectiveness, practice teaching grades,

and composites of some or all of these. In his studies of leadership effectiveness, Fiedler has used the simple criterion of task accomplishment; if the task is achieved, the leader is assumed to have been effective. Ryans lists the following difficulties in research design in using pupil-gain scores as a criterion for teacher effectiveness: difficulty of attributing pupil gain to the effect of the teacher alone (texts, ability of pupils, gains under previous teachers, home influence, influence of peers, study habits, pupil emotional make-up, etc. intercede) and time lapse between the teaching act and the measurement of the effects of that teaching act (factors other than the teacher's efforts will have interceded to enhance or reduce learning) (Ryans, 1962).

However, Ryans goes on to say that in a controlled experiment in which the learning encounter is confined to one session and the test for mastery is given immediately following the encounter, such as done here, the criterion of pupil-gain is probably the best measure of teacher effectiveness (Ryans, 1962). Thus, the major dependent measure was based on a measure of student performance in a verbal imagery lesson.

Other dependent measures, based on students' reactions to the classroom experience, were obtained on a paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Students were asked questions, including how much they had learned, how much they liked the teacher, etc.

Appendices

There are three appendices to this manuscript; they include an example of the word imagery test (Appendix A), description of teacher style manipulation (Appendix B), and a copy of the impression rating questionnaire filled out by the subjects (Appendix C).

Results

The results on the various dependent measures were analyzed via a series of 2 x 2 x 2 analyses of variance. Though each group began with a total of 23 subjects, these totals actually varied from 17 to 22 subjects because of missing data (i.e., failure to complete materials properly).

Performance Measure

There were no statistically significant effects on the performance measure (based on subjects' scores on the verbal imagery test). The predicted teacher style by classroom atmosphere interaction was not significant ($F = 1.577$, $df = 1/150$, $p < .211$), though the means for the treatment conditions were in the predicted direction. The task-oriented teacher tended to be more effective in the favorable ($X = 19.873$) than in the teaching situation of intermediate favorableness ($\overline{X} = 16.566$), whereas the person-oriented teacher tended to be more effective in the situation of intermediate favorableness ($X = 18.208$) than in the unfavorable ($\overline{X} = 17.425$) situation.

Impression Ratings

The absence of the significant teacher style by classroom atmosphere interaction was definitely disappointing. Though the means were in the predicted direction, the variability in performance scores within each condition seemed to preclude any significant effects. Further examination of the results, however, clearly indicated that teacher style and classroom atmosphere had a powerful interaction effect on students' reactions to the overall situation as our experimental hypothesis had predicted. These results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Means of Students' Impression Ratings Associated With the Significant Teacher Style By Classroom Atmosphere Interactions

	Learned	Teacher's encouragement	Teacher's interest	Teacher likes you	Teacher's likeableness	Teacher's effectiveness	Teacher's friendliness
Task set-intermediate favorableness (octant IV)	5.096	4.856	5.317	4.309	3.999	4.354	3.923
Task set-unfavorable (octant VIII)	6.159	6.337	6.501	5.798	5.665	5.538	5.774
Person set-intermediate favorableness (octant IV)	6.255	6.712	6.919	6.784	6.635	6.388	6.679
Person set-favorable (octant VIII)	5.667	5.531	5.535	5.507	5.567	5.372	5.803

Note. The higher the mean, the more favorable the evaluation of the teacher on the situation along a nine-point scale. See Table 1 for an explanation of the octants in terms of Fiedler's classification system for classifying situation favorableness for leaders (or teachers).

The task-oriented teacher generally received more positive ratings in the unfavorable than in the situation of intermediate favorableness; whereas the person-oriented teacher received more favorable ratings in the situation of intermediate favorableness than in the unfavorable situation. These findings occurred on subjects' ratings of how much they had learned ($F = 6.480$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .012$), how much they felt that the teacher encouraged them ($F = 10.596$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .001$), how interested the teacher seemed to be ($F = 8.763$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .004$), how much the teacher liked them ($F = 8.079$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .005$), teacher's likeableness ($F = 11.390$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .001$), teacher's judged effectiveness ($F = 6.335$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .013$), and teachers friendliness ($F = 9.186$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .003$).

There were a few statistically significant effects which incorporated the teacher variable. In the most important effect involving differences between teachers, there was a significant teacher by teacher style by classroom atmosphere interaction on the rating of how much students felt they had learned ($F = 7.807$, $df = 1/141$, $p < .006$). These results indicated that the significant teacher style by classroom atmosphere interaction at least on this measure (described previously), was mainly due to the behavior of one of the teachers. Thus, there was some influence of the individual teachers in how students reacted to the situation. It should be noted that the main results were not confounded by individual teacher differences on the impression ratings. The results were mainly due to the interaction of the teacher style and classroom atmosphere.

Discussion

The major predictions about the joint effects of teacher style and classroom atmosphere were partially supported in the present experiment. The trends for the major data analyses were almost uniformly in the predicted direction. The results on the performance measure tended to confirm our predictions, though they were not significant. Thus the style adopted by the teacher in leading a class has an enormous influence on how much learning and encouragement the students are receiving, depending on the nature of the classroom atmosphere.

It is worthwhile noting that the results were largely unaffected by individual differences in the two teachers. The results obtained on the significant teacher style by classroom atmosphere interactions on the dependent measures generally occurred across both teachers, which confirms the stability of the treatment effects.

Why didn't the results on the performance measure reach an acceptable level of statistical significance? The means related to performance were in the direction predicted by the experimental hypotheses. There was, however, considerable variability in subjects' performance scores within each of the treatment conditions. It would have been worthwhile to partial out statistically the effects of individual differences in verbal aptitude via analysis of covariance (ANACOVA). This procedure was not possible in that subjects were promised anonymity in completing the verbal imagery test in order to reduce the teacher's position power. Thus, subjects' test scores on verbal imagery were not identified with their verbal aptitude scores.

The clear implication of this study is that teacher education students should be taught to vary their teaching style according to the favorableness of the teaching situation. Such a process would involve instruction in the elements that contribute to favorableness of the teaching situation and the developing of an ability to rate the favorableness of actual situations. Students would then need to teach both in simulated and, ultimately, in actual conditions using the appropriate styles for that teaching situation.

Perhaps one of the most striking characteristics of a good teacher is his sensitivity to the teaching situation, and, intuitively knowing what to do when. He senses that his teacher pupil relations are good, the task unstructured, and his position power weak and he knows to emphasize the person-oriented teaching style; or realizes that his relations with pupils are moderately poor, the task is unstructured and his position power is weak and he becomes more task-oriented. The focus of this study is to validate the impact of a shift in style on student perceptions, feelings, and achievement, and provide a framework for making information on what to do when available to the neophyte. At present most teacher education institutions can only tell a student teacher that this intuition comes with experience.

Over twenty-five studies have been conducted on Fiedler's contingency model (Fiedler, 1971). Taken as a whole, they have verified the effectiveness of the contingency theory in predicting successful leadership (i.e., the group accomplishes the task) depending on the favorableness of the situation. Groups led by

one who has the most appropriate style with respect to favorableness of the situation accomplish more. This holds true in both interacting and coacting groups. Further, the present study shows that coacting groups, depending on the favorableness of the situation, enjoy being taught in the appropriate style, and that they perceive they learn more. While the differences in the performance measure for the various conditions were possibly due to chance, the differences were in the anticipated direction and conform to the findings of the above cited studies. Students learn more when they are taught in the appropriate style for a situation. The contingency model offers some insights as to what to do when.

A further application of the model would be to aid in job selection. An applicant, knowing his natural style, could assess a particular teaching situation and determine whether he could be reasonably sure of being successful.

There are applications of the model for school administrators as well. A principal could assess the natural style of his teachers and perhaps modify the favorableness of the teaching situation for the various teachers on his staff--favorable or unfavorable for the task-oriented teacher and situations of intermediate favorableness for the person-oriented teacher.

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APPENDIX A

Test on Imagery

Below are some sentences. After each are several completions. Only one is an image. Select it and place it in the blank next to the number.

____1. The dull music was

a. hard to listen to
b. no fun to hear
c. a car with no motor
d. funky

____2. The uninterested students sat like

a. they were unhappy
b. they didn't know what to do
c. it was the end of school
d. statues in a park

____3. Happiness is

a. nice to have
b. always available
c. a girl who likes you
d. hard to find

____4. Being unhappy is like

a. the end of the world
b. I never am
c. not having any friends
d. a cold rainy afternoon

____5. Julius Erving playing basketball is like

a. a well-oiled machine
b. reading a book
c. I want to be
d. not going to be here much longer

____6. Television is

a. interesting
b. better than school
c. a big eye watching you
d. okay on rainy days

____7. Girls are

a. warm and soft
b. kittens to be cuddled
c. hard to get along with
d. too fussy

____8. Taking a test is

a. hard to do
b. like being hit by a truck
c. no fun
d. easy if you have the answers

____9. Dancing makes you

a. tired
b. a lot of money if you're good at it
c. wish the music would never end
d. a free man

____10. Jeans are

a. hard to come by
b. not very warm
c. comfortable to wear
d. the poor man's velvet

____11. Praise is

a. nice to hear
b. musical gold in your ears
c. hard to get
d. the thing that I need most

____12. The car went skidding down the street like

a. an ice cube on a hot pan
b. I've never seen it do before
c. it was going to a fire
d. it would never stop

____13. Nobody likes a person who

a. is as mean as a snake
b. is unfriendly
c. borrows money and forgets to give it back
d. cheats in playing games

____14. Science books are

a. usually hard to understand
b. filled with interesting pictures
c. as heavy as lead
d. as often puzzling as they are informative

____15. In order to fool a teacher you have to be

a. as cool as Shaft
b. nice at first
c. smarter than she is
d. confident in yourself

____16. Parents like for their children to be

a. as good as they can possibly be
b. happy
c. as rich as cream
d. successful in their own way

____17. This test has been

a. boring
b. as interesting as it could be
c. as interesting as Cleopatra Jones
d. as interesting as I expected it to be

____18. People who fail in school

a. don't try
b. are dumb as a stone
c. are too smart to waste their time studying
d. often as sorry as they can be later on

____19. Lessons like this are

a. boring
b. hard to understand
c. what we usually have
d. like bad medicine

____20. My favorite teacher is

a. like sunshine on a gloomy day
b. easy to get along with
c. an easy grader
d. like I want to be some day

____21. After a few hours, school desks are

a. tight and uncomfortable
b. like a size nine foot in a size four shoe
c. hard to get used to
d. no fun at all

____22. Football is

a. a very exciting sport
b. the best way to stay in shape
c. war played by the rules
d. America's most popular game

____23. The effect of drugs is

a. dangerous
b. helpful if you are unhappy
c. to make you a law breaker
d. heaven while it lasts

____24. Sanford and Son is

a. the black man's Hee Haw
b. the name of a TV program
c. funny most of the time
d. my kind of program

____25. Slavery was

a. declared illegal over one hundred years ago
b. a living death
c. beneficial to the white man
d. cruel and inhuman

____26. Cigarettes are sometimes called

a. unhealthy
b. by other names
c. coffin tacks
d. good producers of revenue

____27. Hard tests are

a. often given in science
b. good
c. unfair if the teacher is bad
d. bear killers

____28. The best kind of homework is

a. a key to learning
b. none
c. things you have to memorize
d. easy

____29. Poor handwriting is

a. very unsatisfactory
b. chicken scratch
c. hard to read for the teacher
d. a sign of a lazy man

____30. Fancy pictures and furniture

a. are house ornaments
b. cost a lot of money
c. help make a house attractive
d. don't make you sleep any better at night

____31. Typing is

a. seeing with your fingers
b. a valuable skill
c. doing something over and over until you get it perfect
d. a better way to express yourself

____32. Students who flunk out are

a. like leaves falling from a tree
b. like me
c. like I was last year
d. not going far in life

APPENDIX B-1

Person-Oriented Set

The person-oriented teacher attempts to:

A. Explain and provide perspective on work procedures.

1. State the objectives of the lesson and the terminal behaviors expected.

2. Explain the importance of the use of images (helps you have more powerful speech [he's strong vs. he's a "hoss"]; helps you convey what you mean better).

3. Read poem to illustrate image.

B. Have the group determine how the session will be conducted.

"First we have some decisions to make."

1. Definition of image. "I could read the definition of image or I could give you some examples and let you try to figure out the definition. Which would you prefer?"

2. Examples. "I could give you some (more) examples to let you get some practice or I could give you a description and let you change it to an image or you could write a sentence with an image and draw a picture to illustrate it. Then write another sentence without an image and try to illustrate it and share with the class." (Ex. - He is a "hoss" vs. He is big).

AND

"We could vote on whether we think the example is an image (if students give the examples) or I could tell you whether or not the example is an image. Which would you prefer?"

AND

"I could explain why the examples are images or we could have another class member do it. Which would you prefer?"

C. Criticize and praise the group as a whole.

1. Criticize

a. "Come on, fellows, you're not trying."
b. "Pay attention, group."
c. "Listen to what he's saying, class."
d. "This team is going to have to work hard to beat the last team I had."
e. "Believe me, people, this is not nearly as hard as you're making it seem."

2. Praise

a. "This is the best group I've had so far."
b. "You all are certainly getting this fast."
c. "We'll finish this way early if you keep up the good work, class."
d. "Almost everyone so far has gotten the right answer."
e. "The way you're paying attention, you'll learn this faster than the other groups, students."

D. Become a group member in spirit.

1. Non-verbal

a. Sit on level with them.
b. Move among group members.

2. Verbal

a. "I'm enjoying this group."
b. "I know we can get this if we keep at it."
c. "Let's see how accurately we can complete this test."
d. "I remember studying this in high school and I didn't think it was very exciting, but it really is important."

E. End lesson with choice.

"You could ask me questions about anything you didn't understand or I could ask you a couple of questions to see if you understood. How would you like to proceed?"

F. Test

"I am going to give you a test, now, to see what you have learned. Please indicate the completion that is most nearly an image. Do not be distracted by other things - concentrate on indicating the image."

APPENDIX B-2

Task-Oriented Set

The task-oriented teacher attempts to:

A. Determine how the session will be conducted in order to learn the lesson.

"I have planned a lesson to help you learn about imagery in language. If you will listen carefully and follow my directions as accurately as possible, we should be able to move through the lesson quickly and learn the information. I have tried to plan a lesson that will best help you learn the material."

B. Go only one step at a time so that the group is uncertain what to do next.

1. Explain the importance of the use of images (helps you have more powerful speech [he's strong vs. he's a "hoss"]; helps you convey what you mean better).

2. Read definition of image: "An image is a word or group of words that form a mental picture and stand for something else." Give example.

3. Read poem to show how images can be effective and to illustrate definition of image. Explain.

4. Give some pairs of images vs. descriptions for them to respond to: Say, "I will explain these first ones. Now I'll give some more for you to decide on."

a. He's a hoss (image)
He is big

b. She is nice
She is an angel (image)

5. Summarize what you have covered above and give <u>one final contrasting pair</u> - description vs. image.

6. Questions.

C. Criticizes and praises <u>individual members</u>.

1. "That is good, Joe."
2. "Your answer was better than Toni's, George."
3. "That is on the wrong track Jerry. Tell him, Jim."

D. Remains aloof from the group.

1. Stand behind desk.
2. Move in front of room, but not between rows.
3. Stand erect (<u>not</u> bending forward at the waist).

4. No joking with students. Efficient, business-like manner. Phrases like, "This would be the most efficient way to proceed," "Pay attention and we can get through this with the most learning possible."

5. Give precise directions on distribution and return of tests:

   "I am going to give you a test now to see what you have learned. Please indicate the completion that is most nearly an image. Do not be distracted by other things - concentrate on indicating the image."

   "I will give the proper number of tests and answer cards for each row. Pass them back taking one from the top of the pile. DO NOT mark on the test sheet, only the card. To change an answer, erase completely. When you complete the test, you may get out other work for the rest of the period. DO NOT turn in your test until I call for them."

PROJECT EDUCATION
OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY
NORFOLK, VIRGINIA

Part I

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read carefully each of the statements below and indicate your opinion by circling one of the points along the nine-point scale.

1. Do you think you have learned anything about the topic of "word imagery" from the lecson?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
   nothing at all — a great deal

2. How much did you enjoy participating in this class?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
   not at all — a great deal

3. Did the teacher encourage you to participate in the discussion while she was going over the lesson?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
   not at all — a great deal

4. Did you feel that the teacher was interested in your participating in the class?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
   not at all — a great deal

5. Do you think this teacher is one you'd like to have as your regular teacher?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
   not at all — a great deal

Part II

INSTRUCTIONS: Please rate the teacher's behavior on the following things. Check off the point along the scale that reflects your opinion.

1. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   distant — close to students

2. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   likeable — not likeable

3. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   effective as a teacher — not effective as a teacher

4. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   formal — informal

5. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   friendly — not friendly

6. ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
   directive — spreads responsibility